

INTRODUCTORY LECTURES

TO

JOHN I. M'CHESNEY'S

SYSTEM OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

AS

DELIVERED TO HIS CLASSES,

CALCULATED TO ENABLE PERSONS TO BE THEIR
OWN TEACHERS.

BRIDGETON:

PRINTED BY JOHN CLARKE.

1823.



INTRODUCTORY LECTURES

TO

JOHN I. M'CHESNEY'S

SYSTEM OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

AS

DELIVERED TO HIS CLASSES,

CALCULATED TO ENABLE PERSONS TO BE THEIR
OWN TEACHERS.

BRIDGETON:

PRINTED BY JOHN CLARKE.

1823.

TO THE READER.

THE subject matter contained in these few pages is submitted to press, at the particular request of my pupils : During the course of my teaching, it has been a very common practice for them to take notes of my lectures, and in them, errors would frequently be found ; to prevent this, it is thought necessary to strike off a few copies, containing the principle observations and questions made in each important lesson

I have endeavoured to use a style of language suitable to the comprehension of children, and to arrange and represent the study in such a manner, as appears to me most practicable for young learners,

With this small pamphlet is intended to be used a GRAMMAR which I have compiled for the use of schools, and to which I so frequently refer the scholars for exercise through the course of these observations. If the teacher in pursuing this plan, should find the lessons too lengthy, he may divide them accordingly, and take such parts as he may think most proper for his purpose.

I will only add, that, though this is the work of but little leisure ; it, with the Grammar to which it belongs, is the result of several years experience in the exclusive business of teaching the *English Grammar*.

JOHN I. M'CHESNEY.

INTRODUCTORY LECTURES, &c.

LESSON I.

On the noun and verb—transitive and intransitive verbs—nominative and objective case.

GRAMMAR, is the art of speaking and writing correctly. It is a certain collection of rules, drawn from the best practical use of a language, for the purpose of communicating our ideas in strong and unequivocal terms, with harmony and ease.

In the vocabulary of the English language, there are about forty thousand words, and in order to obtain a correct practical use of this copious list, as well as to secure to words their original use and meaning, grammarians have arranged them into nine classes or *parts of speech*, viz: the *Article, Adjective, Noun, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction* and *Interjection*.

Of these, the two primary are the *Noun* and *Verb*.

A noun is the name of any thing, or subject of conversation. From this definition, it may be observed that any thing which affords us a subject of conversation, may properly be called a noun; that is, any thing which we can talk about, such as *tree, man, town, city, house, &c.* These we call nouns, because they are names—for a noun is a name. There are some nouns or names which in the conception of some, at first view, may appear in their sense to be different, because they have no solid substance: as, *virtue, piety, truth*; but these are in every respect nouns; they exist in imagination, as much as *tree, man, house, &c.* does in substance.—The former are called *abstract* nouns, the latter, *substantive* nouns.

I will proceed to give an explanation of the *verb*. *A verb expresses the action or being of a noun*. According to the first clause of this definition, every thing is a verb that expresses *action*; every thing which we can do, or that can be performed, should be called a *verb*; as *go, come, write, talk, buy, sell, &c.* These are verbs, because we can *do* them, or they *can be performed*. The second clause of this definition, speaks of words which express *being* or *existence*; as *am, art, is, was, were, been*. These do not express action, but *being*, or *existence*; these being therefore included in the definition, are equally *verbs*.

Now let us take a comparative view of the *noun* and *verb*. I said a *noun* was any thing that we can *talk about*, and a *verb* was any thing that we can *do*. *John* is a *noun*, because we can talk about it; *walk* is a *verb*, because we can do it. For a further practical knowledge of this, look at the book,* page 47, section 4, which begins as follows: "Charles pushes William." Charles is a *noun*, because we can talk about it; pushes is a *verb*, because we can do it; William is a *noun*, because we can talk about it.—You may parse this sentence in the following manner: Charles is a *noun*; pushes is a *verb*; William is a *noun*. The following, parse in the same manner.

Having considered the difference between the noun and verb, I will now attempt to show a difference in the use of verbs. We know that verbs express action; the next thing is to consider whether the verbs be *transitive* or *intransitive*. This certainly is a very important consideration, inasmuch as it tells us whether the act affects any thing or not. If I say, John strikes William, it is clear that the verb *strike* is transitive, because the act is transferred from John to William—Therefore it is called *transitive*; but if I say

* "A GRAMMAR, compendiously compiled for the use of schools," by the author of these lectures.

the wheel *turns*, it is equally plain that the *verb* is not transferred, because the action is confined to the wheel, and does not reach or affect any thing by its act, as John does, when he strikes—the verb is therefore *intransitive*. You may now practice this distinction in the same section, by parsing it in the same way, distinguishing the kind of verb; as, Charles pushes William; Charles is a *noun*; pushes is a *transitive verb*; William is a *noun*; but if the verb be intransitive, parse it thus; “vessel sails,” vessel is a *noun*; sails is an *intransitive verb*.

If you have clearly comprehended my explanations, it will be my next business to give you an idea of what is meant by *cases* of nouns

The common acceptation of the word case, you know, means the condition or situation in which a thing is placed;—it means nothing more in grammar. Suppose you see one man shoot another, these two men most assuredly would be in very different cases, the man that performs the act, would be in the nominative case; the one that receives the act, would be in the objective case. The nominative case is so called, because it is nominated for the subject of conversation. The objective is so called, because the thing in that case, is the object of the act. We will again go over the same section in which we have been exercising, and parse it in the following manner: “Charles pushes William;” Charles is a noun in the nominative case; pushes is a transitive verb; William is a noun in the objective case.

If you understand what has now been done, we will close this lesson, by enjoining on you, to commit to memory the definitions of the noun and verb, which must be done so that you may be able to recite them with the most perfect familiarity.

LESSON II.

The pronoun—adjective and article.

What is noun?

What is verb?

How many kind of verbs have we explained?

How do you distinguish the transitive verbs?

How the intransitive verbs?

How many cases have been explained?

How do you know the nominative case?

How the objective case?

In this lesson I intend to show the *nature* and *use* of a *pronoun*.

The word *pro*, here prefixed to the noun, means *instead of*, or *for*, so when joined to the noun, you may know it stands in the place of a *noun*.

In the preceding lesson you have been told that a noun was the name of any thing, but as names are often times lengthy, and would consequently take much time in speaking or writing; grammarians have fixed certain short words to supply the place of them, which renders our sentences not only much shorter, but more harmonious. Instead of saying James, John, William and I, learn grammar, I would say *we* learn grammar: then this short word *we*, stands in the place of James, John, William and I. Instead of saying, I saw James this morning, and told James, that James must go to school, I would say, I saw James, and told *him* that *he* must go to school. In this sentence it is plain, that *a pronoun is used instead of a noun*, which is the definition of a pronoun.

To pronouns, as well as nouns, belong number, person, gender and case; these are natural properties, or characters of the noun and pronoun, which, in parsing, must be distinguished. *Number* is easily understood, being merely the distinction between one or more.

There are two numbers, viz. the *singular* and *plural*; the singular means *one*, the plural means *more* than one, no matter how many more; it is called plural. *Person*, is the distinction of those three names or things, which is required to carry on conversation. Whenever any conversation takes place, there must be three persons or things; there must be a person to speak, a person to be spoken to, a person or thing to speak of. The person who speaks, is called the first person; the person who is spoken to, is called the second person; the person who is spoken of is called the third person. When we talk about things, such as *house*, *tree*, &c. which are not persons, in parsing we call them third *persons* also, because it is only for the sake of distinction between the *speaker*, the *hearer* and the *one* spoken of, that this is made; therefore things are considered in this sense, the same as a person would be. The use of person which belong to nouns and *pronouns* is obvious, for if you could not tell whether I spoke to you, or spoke about you, the consequence would be, that you would not understand me at all.

Another distinction in the noun, is the gender; this is the distinction of sex. There are three genders, the masculine, the feminine and neuter; the masculine represents the male; the feminine the female; the neuter represents that which is neither male nor female, and is therefore called neuter gender.

It will be found that some pronouns have no gender; nor is it necessary for pronouns of the first and second person to have genders; they being always present, of course the gender is known; but as the third person is frequently absent, it becomes necessary to distinguish the pronoun by an inflection, as *he*, or *she*.

It may also be observed, that every property which the pronoun possesses, must necessarily be found in the noun; if the pronoun did not contain as much as the noun, it could not fulfil the place of a noun.

For a practical knowledge of this, you may parse on page 48, *section 6*, distinguishing the pronoun, the number, person, case, gender and the kind of verb, &c.

Having obtained an idea how these sentences are parsed, I shall next proceed to give you some knowledge of the adjective, which is a word used to *qualify* a noun.

Were all things *alike*, there would be no use of this class of words in our language; but as things are so various and different, we must needs have words to express that difference; so, every word in our language which qualifies or describes things, should be called an *adjective*. Suppose we wished to have a *sweet* apple, if I say, I want an apple, I do not completely express my wish, I might perhaps receive a sour apple, but if I say, *sweet* apple, the kind is then known; so *sweet* tells what kind of apple I want. So with all other adjectives, as, *good, wise, large, pious, &c.*

For this exercise you may parse in *section 3d* omitting the articles, and using the adjective as you see it at the head of the section.

Before I close this lesson, I shall endeavour to give you an idea of the *article*.

The article is used before a noun to point it out, or show the extent of its signification.

The influence which this word has on the following noun will either point it out, or limit it; so we find that this word may be either definite or indefinite. The, this, that, these and those, are definite articles, because they define immediately the thing to which they refer; as, *the* book, *this* man, &c. all others may be called indefinite, because they will not confine our attention to any particular thing; they only have a limiting influence over the following noun; as, *any* man, *one* book, *three* houses; now it is clear that they limit the noun before which they are placed.

As this classification of articles, in some respects is

different from what has been in general use, it may not be improper to make a few remarks on this subject.

Those words commonly called pronominal adjectives, we have called articles, because they come under the definition. We also assert that these words cannot with any degree of propriety be called pronominal adjectives. It is the business of an adjective to qualify a noun, but if I say "*this* man," not the least degree of quality is expressed by the word *this*; if *the* is an article, because it points out a name, *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*, perform precisely the same office in the sentence. If *a*, is an article, because it limits a noun, *one*, is also the same—two, three, &c. are also used for the express purpose of limiting.

A pronoun is used instead of a noun, but these words are used with nouns, and when used without nouns, lead to nouns, understood.

I shall forbear to detain you on this head; much can be said in proof of this, but what has already been said proves that they possess not the nature of a pronoun or an adjective.

To prepare for the next lesson, the definition of the article and adjective, should be committed; also the definition of the pronoun and the pronoun table, so that it may be declined with the most perfect ease.

LESSON III.

Preposition—adjective—agreement and government.

What is a noun?

How many cases have we given to nouns?

What were they called?

How do you distinguish the nominative case?

How the objective case?

There is another case, which grammarians call *po-*

sessive. This case never performs nor receives an act ; it merely denotes *possession*, in the following noun ; it may be known by its having an apostrophe fixed to the end of the word, with the letter *s* coming after it, as men's hats, John's book, James' house. When the noun ends in *s*, the apostrophe is only added ; as, birds' eggs, boys' hats, &c.

What is an adjective ?

What is an article ?

How many articles are there ?

How do you distinguish the definite article ?

How do you distinguish the indefinite article ?

What is a pronoun ?

How many numbers have pronouns ?

How many persons have pronouns ?

How do you distinguish the first person ?

How, the second ?

How, the third person ?

How do you decline the pronoun table ?

What is a verb ?

How many verbs have we spoken of ?

How do you know the transitive verb ?

How, the intransitive verb ?

In this lessson, the scholar will find some of the most important particulars of grammar.

The only word with which I shall endeavour to make you acquainted at this time, is called a *preposition*.

A preposition is a word used to show the relation or relative situation of two nouns.

It may appear from the definition, that this word will be difficult to comprehend, but on a little reflection I presume it will appear easier. If I say the book is on the table, you see *on*, is the word which shows the *situation* between the book and table, so that *on* is the preposition ; it shows that one is above the other ; so if I say the book is *under* the table, *under* shows how the book is situated. " I travelled *from*

Boston *by* New York *through* Trenton *to* Philadelphia." In this sentence we find several prepositions; —*from*, shows that I left Boston behind me, *by*, shows that I had New York on one side of me, *through*, shows that I had a part of Trenton on each side, *to*, shows that I had Philadelphia in front of me. *For*, is a preposition which shows the relation of two nouns; as, "John spake *for* Charles; in this case *for*, merely relates to Charles. Again, "the son *of* David;" *of* shows the relation only and not the situation; for David may be in England, and his *son* in *America*, consequently the situation is not known by such a word, but the relation is completely told.

I will now leave the preposition, and turn your attention to what we call *syntax*.

Syntax teaches the proper arrangement of sentences, or words in a sentence. *Agreement* and *government* are the two primary principles of syntax. *Agreement* (upon which rule first is founded, and which says *a verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person*,) is one of the plainest principles of nature. That things should agree, we will all consent. Agreement in grammar means nothing more than it does in common conversation, which is a correspondence in the character, use, or appearance of things. You have been told how to tell the number and person of nouns and pronouns, and it is also necessary for you to know that *verbs* have number and person. The second person singular of the verb always ends in *st*, as, *strikest*, *walkest*, *runest*,; the third person singular ends in *s*, as *strikes*, *walks*, *runs*, &c. but if I change this order, it is plain that the nominative and verb will not agree; as, "I strikes," "thou runs," "he walkest." Here the verbs and nominatives do not agree; *I*, is the first person singular; *strikes*, third person singular, thou is second, and runs is third, he is third and walkest is second.

The first person of the verb, and the plural form of

the verb are alike, except the verb *to be*. From this explanation you may see that verbs have a certain termination which show their number and person; therefore nouns and pronouns having number and person, and verbs having the same, they should always correspond.

Government is the second principle of syntax; it is that necessary requisition which one word has for another. Our rule second tells us that "*transitive verbs and prepositions govern the objective case.*" We are to understand from this, that these two words *require* the objective case; if we substituted the word *require*, for the word *govern*, perhaps it may be better understood. If it be asked, why these words require the objective case? we answer, because they will not make sense without them. If I say "John strikes," it makes no sense, because strikes is, in nature, a transitive verb, but it has no object, and we know the verb cannot be transitive unless it has an object, therefore we see it will not make sense until some word follows it; as, "John strikes *William*;" we see in this manner the sentence is complete, because the verb strike has an object, that is something to act upon.

Again, if I say, "*he came to*," it has no sense for the preposition *to*, has no object, and cannot make sense without its object, but when I say "he came to *me*," the sentence is complete; hence it is, that transitive verbs and prepositions govern the objective case.

It will now be necessary to exercise on page 47, and after that on page 50.

Here, we will exercise for the purpose of obtaining a habit of parsing, as you see the first sentence parsed in section 4, page 47. The following is to be parsed in the same manner; and on page 50, where you will find a few sentences to practice upon the preposition.

To prepare for the next lesson, you may commit the definition of the preposition and the first and second rules of syntax.

LESSON IV.

The adverb and conjunction.

What is an article?

How many kinds of articles are there?

How do you know the definite article?

How, the indefinite article?

It should be observed that, *this* and *these*, are to be used when the thing or things are nearer to us, than they are to the person spoken to, but when they are further off, we should say that, or those, as the number of the noun may be. If a person go into a store and take up some knives, to enquire the price of them he should say, what is the price of *these*; but if the knives be on the shelves, he should say, what is the price of *those*, because he would be most likely further off than the sales-man.

It may be observed that *a*, and *an*, is but one article; *a*, is used before a consonant, and *an*, is used before a vowel. The singular and plural numbers of articles should be attended to before the noun to which they point; instead of saying this five years, we should say *these* five years.

What is an adjective?

From what I am about to say, you will find that adjectives convey three distinct ideas of one quality, as *fine*, *finer*, *finest*; these variations are called degrees of comparison, *fine* is called positive, because it positively asserts the quality; *finer* is called comparative, because it compares one thing with another, *finest* is called superlative, because it shows one thing to be better than all others; but when the adjective consists of more than one syllable, the degrees of comparison are formed by the addition of *more* and *most*; as, beautiful, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful.

What is a noun?

A noun may be either proper or common. A proper noun is a particular name; as, *John, London*. A common noun is a *name*, under which a number of different species, or kinds, are found; as, *beast, fowl, &c.* This distinction is not of so much importance as some others, though according to the nature of a proper noun, it is not intended to represent more than one, it being a particular thing. To illustrate this more fully, we will say *Delaware*, is a proper noun, because it is presumed there is but one *Delaware*; we say river is a common noun, because there are many rivers, and is therefore called a *common* noun. In historical writing notwithstanding this rule, we see it written, “the *Henries*, the *Edwards*, &c.

How many cases have nouns?

What are they called?

How do you know the nominative case?

How, the objective?

What is meant by number?

How many numbers are there?

What are they called?

When are they used?

How many genders?

What are they called?

Whom do they represent?

What is a pronoun?

How many persons have pronouns?

Whom do they represent?

There are certain other pronouns that have no number or person. These are commonly called relative pronouns, because they relate back to some particular thing or noun, called its *antecedent*; as, “I am the *person who* commended thee;” *who*, is the relative pronoun, and person, which means the same thing, is called its *antecedent*.

Another class of pronouns is called *common*, because they relate to a person or thing, such as *it, one, others, &c.* For further information, I will refer you to the grammar, page 11 and 12.

What is a verb?

How many kinds of verbs have been spoken of?

What were they called?

How do you know the transitive verb?

How do you know the intransitive verb?

In order to practise on what has been said, you may parse in section 2, 3, and 4. In parsing section 4, take care to apply the *rules of syntax* in the manner that you have been directed at the head of that section, as well as on future occasions.

The next thing that presents itself to our view will be the *adverb*. This is a word used to show *how*, *when*, or *where*, an action is performed; it is a secondary part of speech to the verb, and consequently used with a verb. I have said the adverb shows *how* an action is performed; I will give you an instance. "The horse runs swiftly," *swiftly* is the adverb, it shows how the action of running is performed, it does not show what kind of a horse, but merely shows *how* the horse *runs*, therefore this, as well as almost all other words which end in *ly*, is an adverb.

By this example you will see that an adverb bears the same office to the *verb*, as the adjective does to the *noun*.

In the next place let us consider how an adverb shows *when*, an action is performed. If I say, "I saw him *yesterday*," "I will go *then*," "he is *now* here," you see *yesterday*, *then*, and *now*, show the time of action, they are therefore adverbs.

The last kind of adverbs I shall mention, is that which shows *where* an action is performed; If I say, "they go *yonder*," "they came *here*," "he is *there*," the words *yonder*, *here*, and *there*, become adverbs; they show *where* the action is performed.

This appears to be the use of the adverbs; and you will find some exercise on page 50, in the book, which you may parse until you understand the adverbs.

Having spoken of all the important parts of speech except the conjunction, it becomes necessary to men-

tion this word. It is the use of this word *to connect words and sentences*; as “two *and* three” are five. Here you see, the word *and* is a conjunction; it unites two and three, those two numbers united make one number. Again, if I say, “John *and* James are playing;” *and*, connects John and James, so as to show that they are both engaged in one thing. This is the general office of the conjunction.

To prepare for the next lesson, you will have the definitions of the *adverb* and *conjunction* to commit to memory, as well as the *third* and *fourth* rules of syntax.

LESSON V.

Passive verb and participle.

What is a noun?

How many kinds of nouns are there?

What is a proper noun?

What is a common noun?

How many cases have nouns?

How do you know the nominative case?

How, the objective case?

How, the possessive?

What is a pronoun?

How many kinds of pronouns are there?

How do you decline the personal pronouns?

How do you decline the relative pronouns?

How, the common pronouns?

How many persons have pronouns?

Whom do they represent?

How many genders are there?

Whom do they represent?

How many numbers?

What is a verb?

How many kinds of verbs have we spoken of?

How do you know the transitive verb?

How, the intransitive verb?

What is an article?

How many kind of articles are there?

How do you distinguish the indefinite article?

How, the definite?

When do we use *these*, in preference to *those*?

What is an adjective?

How many degrees of comparison have adjectives?

What are they called?

How are the degrees formed?

What is an adverb?

There are made, by some grammarians, many subdivisions of the adverbs, but they are of no great importance to the young learner, I have thought proper to omit the most of them, giving only three divisions of this part of speech, viz. *manner*, *time*, and *place*.

What is a preposition?

What is a conjunction?

There are two kinds of conjunctions, viz. conjunctive and disjunctive; the conjunctive connects words and sentences in such a manner as to admit of no contrariety in meaning; as, "John and James have gone to town," the word *and*, connects two nouns in such a way as to show that they are both engaged in one act, and therefore speaks collectively. The disjunctive connects words, but gives different ideas of the nouns,; as "John *or* James is gone to town; so that we find the disjunctive conjunction represents things individually. This distinction of the conjunction is certainly very essential, and deserves further attention. You will find a list of them under the head of conjunctions in your grammar.

You are now to recollect that you have before you *all the parts of speech*, and it is at this period that you find more difficulty with your grammar studies than at any other.

In this lesson it is necessary to parse on page 52. In this composition you find verbs, having the word *to* prefixed to them, and it may not be amiss here to observe that the verb *be*, or any word that expresses action should be parsed with the particle *to*, when it immediately follows it; as, *to be, to write, to go, &c.* In these cases *to* is not a preposition, but a mere particle of the verb, to show its simple state.

Before I close this lesson, it will be necessary for me to speak of the passive verb. This is an idiom in our language which, when properly applied, contributes much to its harmony and beauty.

The passive verb is so called, because it generally expresses passion or suffering.

The use of this verb is to express an action or circumstance without our being under the necessity of mentioning the actor; as, "*I am taught;*" "*The letter is written.*" You have been told that the nominative case performs the act, but it is the peculiar characteristic of the passive verb to make the nominative case *receive* the act, and the actor to follow the verb; as, "*I am taught by William;*" "*the letter is written by John;* in these sentences you see the actor comes after the verb and is governed by the preposition *by* in the objective case; so that the speaker may use his pleasure, whether to mention the actor or not, but not so with the transitive verb, for in that case the actor must come first; as, "*John wrote the letter,*" &c.

It is also necessary to take some notice how the passive verb is formed. It is formed by adding the perfect form of a transitive verb, to the verb *to be*; as, *I am struck, thou art beaten, &c.*

Perhaps you may know better how to form this verb, if you turn to your book, pages 22 and 23. On the 22d page you will find, as well as on several others, a list of irregular verbs; then take the transitive verb *struck* from the line under the head of *perfect*, and place it after any of the verbs *to be*, on page 23.

and it will read thus; "I am struck, thou art struck, he is struck," &c. so any transitive verb of this form added to the verb *to be* in any of the moods and tenses becomes passive.

In perusing your books you will find under the head of *verb*, a word called a *participle*. This is so called, because it participates of the nature of a *noun* and *verb*, or an *adjective* and *verb*. This is a compound word, and consequently more difficult to understand; its use appears to be, to shorten our sentences as well as grace them, when properly applied. The compound of this word may be seen in the following sentences; "Walking fast I became fatigued." "Having examined the class, I am convinced they have improved." In these sentences you perceive they are the same, as to say *I walked* fast and became fatigued, *I have examined* the class, and I am convinced they have improved; and in these it seems as though the nominatives and verbs were included in one word; as, *walking*, for *I walked*; and *having examined*, for *I have examined*. The participle which partakes of the nature of an adjective and verb, appears to be very little different from the adjective; as, "A man *acquainted* with business," "*admired*, we became vain," here acquainted and admired, which are perfect-participles, are similar to adjectives. There are three kinds of participles, viz. the *present*, ending in *ing*, the *perfect*, ending in *ed*, *t*, or *n*, the *compound perfect*, which is formed by fixing the present participle *having* to the perfect; as, "*having seen*," "*having written*, &c. Participles have the same influence on the following noun as a verb would have, provided they were not in the participial form, so if derived from a transitive verb, they require an object, but no nominative, for we have already seen that the nominative is included in the participle, which is the cause of its being so called. In our future lessons, I shall occasionally speak of the passive verb and participle.

The rules 5th and 6th must be committed for the next lesson.

LESSON VI.

Moods and tenses.

What is an article?

How many kinds of articles are there?

When do we use the definite article?

When the indefinite?

When do we use *this* and *these* in preference to *that* and *those*?

What is an adjective?

How many degrees of comparison have adjectives?

What are they called?

How do you form the degrees of comparison?

What is a noun?

How many kinds are there?

How do you distinguish the common noun from the proper noun?

What is meant by *case* of nouns?

How many cases are there?

How do you know the nominative case?

How, the objective?

How, the possessive?

How is the possessive case formed?

When the noun ends in *s*, how is it formed?

What is a pronoun?

How many kinds of pronouns are there?

What are they called?

How are they declined?

How many numbers are there?

What are they called?

How many persons have pronouns?

Whom do they represent?

What is a verb?

How many kinds of verbs are there?

How do you know the transitive verbs?

How, the intransitive verbs?

How, the passive verb?

How is the passive verb formed ?

What is the use of the passive verb ?

What is an adverb ?

What is a preposition ?

What is a conjunction ?

How many kinds of conjunctions are there ?

When do we use the conjunctive conjunction ?

When do we use the disjunctive conjunction ?

What is rule first ?

What is rule second ?

What is rule third ?

What is rule fourth ?

What is rule fifth ?

What is rule sixth ?

At this period of our studies, it becomes necessary for us to turn our attention to *moods* and *tenses*.

Mood, means the manner in which the act is performed or spoken of. At this time I shall explain to you three moods only, viz. the *indicative*, *potential* and *infinitive*. The indicative is so called, because it indicates or shows an act *to be certain*. The potential is so called, because it relates to *power*; it not only expresses power, but liberty, will, or obligation. By comparing these, moods, a very great difference is found; as, "I write," "I can write;" in the former of these, we find *certainty* expressed, admitting of no doubt; but the latter does not say that I ever wrote, or that I ever will write, but merely says I *can* write. So you see the indicative expresses *certainty*, and the potential expresses *power*.

In order to determine the indicative from the potential; I will ask a few questions for you to answer. In what mood is "I write? I walk? I can write? I may walk?"

The infinitive mood is so called, because it expresses its act in the most general and unlimited manner; if I say "*to write*, a good hand is an accomplishment." I do not mean for me, or for you only to write a good

hand will be an accomplishment, but for any person; so you see a verb in the infinitive mood is not confined to any particular person or thing, and is therefore called the infinitive mood. The particle *to*, which always precedes it; as, *to walk*, *to write*, *to go*, is not in this case a preposition, but a mere particle of the verb to show what mood it is in, or to show its simple state.

Tense is the distinction of the time of action; for the present I will only mention the three general divisions of tense, viz. the present, past and future: “*I write*,” “*I wrote*,” “*I will write*,” this distinction of time I think you will not find difficult, and to practise what I have said on moods and tense, you should exercise any where between pages 50 and 60, applying all the rules which you may have committed. You should parse in every lesson as much as two sections.

You may commit for the next lesson, the definitions of the indicative, potential and infinitive moods, and the 7th and 8th rules of syntax.

LESSON VII.

Moods and tenses continued.

Before I give you any further explanations, I wish you to answer me all the questions I asked you in lesson VI. In addition to these, I want you to tell me;

What is meant by moods?

What does the indicative mood express?

What does the potential mood express?

What does the infinitive mood express?

What is meant by tense?

What is the seventh and eighth rules of syntax?

Besides the moods which I have mentioned in the preceding lesson, there are two others, viz. the imperative and subjunctive. The imperative commands, ex-

horts, or entreats; as, “go away,” “give me an apple,” “do learn your lessons.” In these sentences you see no nominative; but in this mood, though not often mentioned, the *nominative* is always understood; as, “go *thou* away,” “give *thou* me an apple,” “do *you* learn your lessons.” In this mood we find no change of the verb on account of number and person.

The subjunctive mood is used for expressing *doubt* or *contingency*. This mood appears to be opposite to the indicative: as that expresses certainty, and the subjunctive expresses *uncertainty*. It is the conjunction *if* or some other doubtful word placed before some verb in the indicative or potential which forms the subjunctive mood; as, “*if I go* I shall see him,” “I shall set off *unless it rains*;” in these sentences you see the doubt or contingency wholly lies in the conjunction which precedes the verb, for if you take it away, the verb will be in the indicative.

We now leave the moods, and take a further consideration of *tense*. You have been told that tense is the distinction of time, and that time consisted of three general divisions, viz. present, past and future; but this distinction is not sufficient to mark time accurately, therefore tense has been subdivided; the present tense has no subdivisions, but the past has three, viz. the *imperfect*, *perfect*, and *pluperfect*. The future tense has two subdivisions, viz. the *first* and *second future*; according to these subdivisions you will find six tenses, viz. the present, imperfect, perfect, pluperfect, first and second future.

I do not consider it necessary to attempt to show you the proper places for each of these tenses, until you commit the definitions of all the moods and tenses which will be found on the 15th and 16th pages of your grammar.

After you parse two sections of what you have been

before directed to parse, the 9th and 10th rules of syntax must be committed, as well as definition of moods and tenses.

LESSON VIII.

Form of verb—mood and tense.

After you have answered me the questions asked in the sixth and seventh lessons, I wish you to answer me the following.

What does imperative mood express ?

What does the subjunctive mood express ?

What time does the present denote ?

What time does the imperfect denote ?

What time does the perfect denote ?

What time does the pluperfect denote ?

What does the first and second future denote ?

Although the *actor* in a scene most generally strikes our attention first ; yet it is by no means so interesting as the *act*, and as acts become interesting, so the slightest variance in expressing the act becomes important ; therefore it is not to be wondered at, that verbs undergo so many changes from the common root.

In conjugation of the verbs, which commences on page 23, you will see all the changes to which the verb is subject ; you will discover that their changes are made for the purpose of giving different ideas of acts ; you will find that the most of those changes are effected by *auxiliaries*. What I mean by auxiliaries, you must understand to be those words which come before the principal or last verb ; as, *I have* written, *I had* written, *I shall* write, &c. but the change of the verb is not always made by placing different auxiliaries before it ; the principal verb is changed as, write, *wrote* ; this leads us to consider the forms of the principal verb itself.

We find that the simple state of verbs has no particular termination; though when we come to change them, we find that some of them have more regularity in their termination than others; therefore grammarians have called some *regular*, and some *irregular*: those which end in *ed*, when used in the imperfect and perfect tense, are called regular; those which do not, are called irregular.

A list of irregular verbs is laid down in your books, commencing at page 17. In this list you will find three forms of the verb, viz. the *present*, *imperfect*, and *perfect*. That I may more clearly be understood, you may look at page 22, where you can compare these verbs with the conjugation.

Some verbs in this list you will find which are under the head of imperfect and perfect, are written alike, but those verbs which are not alike, you may be in danger of misusing; those verbs under the head of imperfect should not be compounded with auxiliaries at any time, but those under the head of perfect should be always used with auxiliaries when they are used as verbs. If I say I have *wrote*, you would find the *imperfect* form of the verb placed in the perfect tense or connected with the auxiliary *have* which belongs to the perfect form *written*, therefore care should be taken not to confound the forms of the verb or place them in the tense to which they do not belong.

For further information on this head, see the *grammar*, pages 16 and 17.

LESSON IX.

Moods and tenses continued.

The usual questions besides the definitions of the moods and tenses are to be recited at the commencement of this lesson.

Having in the preceding lessons told you the use of *mood* and *tense* ; it now remains for me to show you the proper place for them according to their various use and meaning ; for if there is six tenses, it follows that there are six places to use them.

The present tense is so easy to understand, that it might seem almost impossible for any who speak the English language to misapply it ; yet it is frequently the case ; we frequently hear people say, “ to morrow *is* sunday,” “ the vessel *sails* next week,” “ the first day of next month *is* my birth day,” &c. In these sentences it is plain, that we speak of future time, and that the verbs are in the present tense ; they should be, *will, be, will sail*, &c. It is also misused in speaking of past time as, “ I *come* yesterday,” it should be, I *came*, &c.

The imperfect tense is to be used when the action is past, and the time also past, which may be mentioned by the speaker ; as, “ I *wrote* a letter *yesterday*,” “ I *wrote* *last week* ;” in these I use the verb in the imperfect tense, because, *yesterday*, and *last week* have past away, no part of that time remains with us. But suppose a part of the time is still with us ; as, *to day, this week, this month*, I would use the perfect tense and say, “ I *have written* to day,” “ I *have written* this week.” It matters not how long, or how short the time is to be mentioned, you have only to consider whether the time is wholly past or not ; if it is past, use the imperfect tense, if not, use the perfect. The pluperfect is another division of past time. This form of the verb shows an act prior to some other act which has past, as, “ I *had heard* of him, before I *saw* him. In this sentence we find two actions, both of which are past, viz. I *had heard*, I *saw*, and in order to show which act took place first, we fix the auxiliary *had*. And in all cases, when relating a circumstance and two past actions come together, we should put the first act in the *pluperfect* tense ; as, “ I *had finished* my letter before the mail arrived,” “ he

who *had been* dead, sat up and began to speak :” not who was dead.

Future time, we have seen, contains two divisions, viz. first and second future. We often find the first future used in place of the second ; as, next week will be one year that I have been to school.” Now, we know it is very absurd to say, next week will be one year, or next week will be two weeks that I have been here.” and such like expressions. They should be “next week I *shall have been* at school one year, using the second future tense, for that will show the time or act to be completed before the future period named, which is evidently the design of the speaker in these expressions.

Upon an examination you will find the subjunctive mood has two forms of conjugation. This mood deserves some attention in order to determine when to use the subjunctive terminations, and when the indicative ; that is, when it would be proper to say, “If I *am*,” and when to say, “if I *be* ;” grammarians have called both these forms present tense. When we speak of a thing or circumstance that now exists, without having any reference to future time ; as, “if Charles *is* sincere we may trust him.” In this sentence, no idea of futurity is expressed, and in this case I fix *if*, to the indicative ; and it would be equally correct to fix *if* to a verb in the potential mood, but in so doing you will find the sentence not only to express doubt or contingency, but it will give an idea of futurity ; as, “call at the office, *if the clerk be* in he will attend to you. Some would imagine from seeing the verb conjugated thus ; “*If I be, If thou be, If he be*, that the verb undergoes no change on account of number and person as the indicative does, but it is not the case ; it has a change of number and person like other moods, the only reason why it differs is, that the auxiliary *should*, is always understood ; as, *if I should be, if thou shouldst be, if he should be*. The elipsis of

should, in this case does not affect the sense of the sentence, the auxiliary is therefore generally omitted.

The passive verb claims more attention than we have yet given it, as we can make use of either the *transitive* or *passive verb* to relate the same circumstance, it follows that there is a choice in the use of them. It is considered more elegant to use the passive, when the effects of the act is intended for the subject of discourse, and actuates the speaker most; as, “*I am robbed*,” “*he was murdered*,” &c. but if it be the design of the speaker merely to expose the actor, it would be better to say “*he robbed a person*,” “*he murdered a person*,” in which we use a transitive verb.

These observations upon the passive verb are founded upon nothing more than fancy of composition, upon which a great deal might be said, but it must not to be presumed, that it can be found in these short lessons.

After this it will be necessary to pay some attention to false syntax. On page 73, you will find its commencement.

I do not know that it is necessary to parse these sentences, but merely to correct them in the following manner: “disappointments sinks the hearts of men, but the renewal of hope give consolation.” Incorrect, because the transitive verb *sinks*, is third person singular, and does not agree with its nominative *disappointments*, which is in the plural; also the verb *give* is in the plural, not agreeing with its nominative *renewal*, which is singular; therefore *sinks*, should be *sink*, and *give*, should be *gives*, to agree with their nominatives, according to rule first, which says, a verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person; it should read thus, “disappointments *sink* the heart of man, but the renewal of hope *gives* consolation.”